to providing a comprehensive overview of the existing political and jurisdictional dimensions of the Greenlandic and Nunavut governments, the author explores new and relatively uncharted areas by considering the prospects for and consequences of expanded autonomy in the future.

The book should appeal to a wide variety of scholars. For students of Arctic and circumpolar affairs, it offers a thoughtful and enlightened discussion of some of the most important political events to occur in the Arctic in the last three decades, as well as some relevant insights on the future prospects for enhanced regional autonomy. For students of comparative federalism, it outlines the unique territorial and jurisdictional dimensions of these two examples of Inuit multi-level governance. For students of Canadian government and politics, as well as aboriginal politics and societies, the book provides an interesting perspective on the evolution of public government in predominantly aboriginal regions, and on the question of aboriginal-state relations in Canada and in the circumpolar North. For legal and constitutional scholars, it provides an overview of the unique jurisdictional characteristics of Arctic governance, an area that, in the author's opinion, "is not addressed adequately by international or comparative constitutional law" (p. 3).

The book begins with a general overview of the evolution of these two regions in the period prior to and since European contact. It briefly charts the impact that colonization had on the Inuit societies in Greenland and Nunavut and, in particular, the political mobilization that occurred among the Inuit in both regions during the post-war period. These topics, which have been studied in detail by other Arctic scholars, provide a necessary backdrop to the book's primary investigation into the constitutional dimensions of governance in Greenland and Nunavut and the specific institutional features and jurisdictional issues that will confront these relatively new regions and their home countries in the future.

The real value of this book lies in the author's exploration of jurisdictional issues that are not normally associated with subnational regions: the incorporation of indigenous values into the Greenlandic and Nunavut juridical-legal systems and the participation of these two regions in international relations. Although these are areas in which national governments are reluctant to share sovereignty, they are increasingly important to the future of the regions in question. Blending the customary legal traditions of the Inuit with the existing western legal traditions is, of course, a challenging task. Nevertheless, the author argues that "there should be further dialogue between Inuit and non-Inuit legal traditions so that the legal systems in Greenland and Nunavut can embrace the best of both worlds" (p. 102). Indeed, the development of a legal system that embraces Inuit values and culture and increases Inuit involvement in legal services and the judicial system could legitimize and facilitate the delivery of justice.

On the thorny question of international relations, the book focuses a great deal on issues related to the military and to security. Although Greenland (and to a lesser extent, Nunavut) have had some involvement in international politics, they have had more success projecting their voice in the international arena through the Inuit Circumpolar Council (ICC), a transnational organization that has been actively involved in international and multilateral governance through the United Nations and the Arctic Council. This influence, however, has been limited to "soft-security" matters such as environmental issues; it is less obvious in the area of hard security, largely because the Arctic Council is reluctant to discuss hard security matters. The ICC, however, remains the most obvious means for Greenland and Nunavut to influence the international agenda, aside from the limited pressure they can bring to bear on their home governments.

Another important aspect of international relations that the book does not really touch on in great detail involves direct economic and trade relations between Nunavut and Greenland. Given the proximity and socio-cultural similarities of the two regions, there is great potential for future collaboration in this area. That said, it is also important to note that Greenland and Nunavut are competitors in an increasingly globalized economy. While for the most part their interactions have been overwhelmingly positive, trade competition and disputes (as evidenced by a recent Greenlandic ban on Canadian sealskin pelts) in the future could lead to rifts between the two regions that will also involve their home governments and organizations like the ICC.

These details aside, however, *The Arctic Promise* is an engaging comparison of two emerging models of Inuit governance. It offers a clear, well-written overview of the Greenlandic and Nunavut systems of government and draws our attention to the key issues that could shape their respective political futures. And finally, as other Inuit regions in Canada and the circumpolar North seek to expand and consolidate their political and legal autonomy, this book will serve as a useful structural framework and benchmark for future comparison.

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HUMAN ECOLOGY OF BERINGIA. By JOHN F. HOFFECKER and SCOTT A. ELIAS. New York: Columbia University Press, 2007. ISBN 978-0-231-13060-8. xi + 290 p., maps, b&w illus., notes, bib., index. Hardbound. US$45.00; £29.00.

The timing of initial human migration to the Americas is a hot topic in North American archaeology, as documented by the intense level of research activity ranging from fundamental excavation results to the intricacies of molecular

archaeology. As part of this context, *Human Ecology of Beringia* contributes a synthesis of the current state of knowledge in the areas of biogeography and archaeology, or as the authors put it, "the human side of Beringia" (p. ix).

The book defines Beringia as a vast piece of terrain that extends 4000 km from the Verkhoyansk Mountains in the west to the Mackenzie River in the east. Most of Beringia lies north of 60° N latitude, and its status as a major player in the initial colonization of the Americas cannot be denied. Aside from the synthetic contribution of the book, the authors seek to address the major question of why "people did not come earlier or, for that matter, later?" (p. x).

After an introduction that provides some background information, the book proceeds with a long chapter on palaeonvironment that ends with an effective summary of Lateglacial environments. Five subsequent chapters deal with the human occupation evidence, beginning with the peopling of northeastern Siberia, the Lateglacial Maximum, the Younger Dryas, and the end of Beringia. A synthesis at the end of the book places Beringia within the context of the New World.

The early human history of Beringia is represented by four blocks of time, the earliest being before 28 000 cal BP, and deals with human occupation above the Arctic Circle in Europe and Beringia. Although the evidence is very limited, the Yana RHS site at 71° N in Siberia indicates that modern humans were successfully coping with northern environments at this early time horizon. During the subsequent colder period from 27 000 to 23 000 cal BP, the authors argue that northeastern Siberia and Beringia were likely abandoned, since there appears to be no available archaeological evidence. They attribute this human vacuum as a response to three possibilities: reduced biotic productivity, a shortage of suitable woody fuel sources, and extreme low temperatures. Related to the latter, they point out that before 20 000 cal BP, humans occupying northern Eurasia probably "were susceptible to extreme cold because of their warm-climate anatomy, and this may have been an important constraint on high-latitude settlement" (p. 210). With warming climate after 20 000 cal BP, NE Asia was reoccupied by people using a microblade technology likely to sustain a highly mobile existence. Eventually Beringia itself was occupied or reoccupied by 15 000 – 14 000 cal BP (p. 210).

The authors contend that the arrival of a mesic tundra environment may have been the most significant factor affecting human occupation of Beringia, since it provided valuable fuel sources (e.g., willow and birch). Sites representing this period include Berelekh in western Beringia and a number of sites in the Tanana Valley in central Alaska (Broken Mammoth, Mead, and Swan Point); Bluefish Caves in the northern Yukon may also be a part of this record. Finally, the Younger Dryas (12800–11300 cal BP) saw a brief return to colder conditions, and something of a divergence in assemblages between Siberia and Alaska-Yukon. This period is marked by the continuation of microblade assemblages in both areas, but in eastern Beringia the microblade technology is complemented by the addition of lanceolate points characteristic of the Mesa Complex.

Although the authors present one possible model that they believe explains the evidence as is it now stands and addresses their main question, there are some issues that warrant comment. First of all, I think they underestimate the significance of the Yana RHS site. The Yana occupants clearly must have had a northern adaptation in terms of hunting technology, landscape knowledge, tailored clothing, etc. The explanation that Yana might have been simply a seasonal foray into the extreme North without some idea of how that may have operated seems unreasonable. For example, I find it difficult to imagine that the people represented by the Yana finds would have engaged in long-distance movements (e.g., to south of 60° N would be about 760 km) to more equable climes during cold weather periods. Moreover, if these Yana folks were capable of living near the Arctic coast of Siberia, I suspect they were clever enough to have ventured into eastern Beringia as well.

In the colder period that followed the initial peopling, the authors maintain that Beringia was abandoned; this conclusion is based mostly on an apparent lack of any known sites. Regrettably, what is ignored is that the Bluefish caves in the northern Yukon have evidence of mammoth bone technology at 23 500 radiocarbon years BP (Cinq-Mars and Morlan, 1999; pers. comm., 2007). This evidence suggests clearly that people were living in eastern Beringia during this pre-LGM interval. This type of bone technology has been controversial in North American archaeology, but recent work by Holen (2006, 2007) in the central Plains, arguments by Morlan (2003), and the fact that this technology is acceptable to most archaeologists when found in Eurasian sites (Morlan 2003) suggest that it needs to be considered seriously in any potential explanation of early Beringian occupation. Thus, it could be argued that eastern Beringia was in fact not abandoned in the critical 27 000 – 23 000 cal BP period. Since remarkably little archaeological work has been done in the remote vastness of Beringia, sites from all periods may well be there, but we simply haven't found them yet.

Nonetheless, the authors offer explanations of why they think Beringia was abandoned that seem to revolve on the lack of wood, including that used for fuel. They also allude to the challenge of cold for modern humans whose biological adaptation was still tropical in nature, so that extreme cold conditions could be dangerous. This is a curious argument since it seems to ignore widely held views by palaeoanthropologists that culture took precedence over biology in terms of the ability of modern humans to cope with vastly different environmental circumstances at a fairly early time. The authors cite evidence from U.S. armed forces research on the negative effects of cold on human subjects. However, they do not mention bioanthropological research from the eastern Subarctic (Steegman, 1983), which documented that Cree hunters rarely suffered any effects of extremely cold conditions unless they made a mistake by failing to follow proper

procedures, which of course were dictated by cultural knowledge, not biological suitability.

Although I clearly disagree with some of the suggested explanations of the current state of evidence in this book, I appreciated the chance it provides to reflect on the human dimension of early Beringian occupation. Overall, I found the book to be well written, and a good summary of a vast amount of information. In addition, side-boxes provide discussion of specific aspects or themes that are mentioned in the main flow of presentation. There are numerous photographs and line drawings, though the majority of the artifact illustrations lack any scale. Much of the archaeological information covered in the book is available elsewhere (e.g., Hadleigh-West, 1996), although Hoffecker and Elias provide more recent published and unpublished data that adds important information to the overall presentation. Moreover, the authors provide an explicit temporal and environmental framework to organize the information, rather than relying on the encyclopedia-type of approach followed by the Hadleigh-West volume; for this the authors should be commended. I think this book would be of interest and useful to students and professionals alike who are interested in issues of early human colonization and in the early prehistory of the North.

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